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society is very natural, but there exists no natural feeling upon earth that must not be kept in check unless we mean to be worse than useless beings."

There is nothing for me to add to the above extracts. The way in which my grandmother traced deviations from good manners to some shortcoming in right principles must I think commend itself to every thoughtful mother who feels the uselessness of constant repetitions of shallow fault-finding, whereas a searching examination into the real springs of action is needed. If a child is convinced of something wrong at the root of things she may be most genuinely startled and sorry, and by dint of prayer and effort make a more successful struggle for improvement than perhaps she could be persuaded to make for the sake of acquiring tidy habits.

THE TEACHING OF GEOGRAPHY AND SOCIAL SCIENCE,

BY PAUL DE ROUSIERS.

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II.

THERE is no necessity to invent this order, it exists and requires only to be discovered. We are aware of it, we have an intuition that a particular climate will give rise to certain physical conditions, that the abundance, scarcity or absence of certain productions, influences various phenomena of our social organization, and this is why we introduce into geographies, all sorts of considerations respecting the manners and customs of the inhabitants of every country described. It remains for us to determine clearly the relation of cause and effect which connects social and physical systems.

An analogous progress has been already worked out concerning facts belonging strictly to the material description of the earth. In these days we are not told baldly, Africa has so many capes, rivers and peaks, but a general idea of the form of the continent is given at starting; the grander contours are pointed out, the unbroken character of the coast line and the consequent rarity of capes and gulfs; then is shewn the broad lines of relief, the existence of a vast central depression, and the water system is explained by reference to this peculiarity; in other words, instead of enumerating various physical features, they are grouped together, not in an arbitrary or artificial manner, but by taking into account the causes which really unite them.

Here we have the true geographical method; it only remains to apply it, not exclusively to physical facts which constitute the foundation of geography, but to those social phenomena of any kind, economic, scenic, political, military or historical which arise from material conditions and may be said to complement them.

Physical facts have been rescued from chaos and reduced to order; the same remains to be done with social facts. But first we must ascertain the social facts that really form part of geography. At present what is included in chapters on manners, customs, religions, etc., is a matter of individual caprice, too much or too little of each, sometimes too much and too little at one and the same time. It is indispensable to know where geography begins and ends, both as a whole and in detail. This science must have its limitations as well as any other.

To ascertain these limitations it is only necessary to recall the reasons which made the introduction of new elements into geographical programmes permissible.

This arose from obedience to the idea that these new elements were not without relation to the physical conditions of the locality; these relations are the cause of their existence, their appearance in fact is due to these relations. So much being admitted, nothing is easier than to choose from the group of social facts those which have clearly defined relations to physical conditions. All such facts are from this point of view, geographical. If the relations which connect them with physical conditions be simple, easy to see and direct, it is perfectly right to mention them in works on elementary geography; if, on the other hand, they depend on these conditions by relations which are complicated, difficult to disentangle or indirect, they should be reserved for more advanced study. Consequently every thing depends on acquaintance with the true relations which bind social facts to the physical world. This knowledge is furnished by social science since the application of the method of observation to this science by Leplay, and after him by M. Henri de Tourville.

I do not claim that social science in its actual state, offers a key to all the relations of cause and effect existing between every social and every physical phenomenon. I only wish to say that social science has determined some of these relations, and that this is the only efficacious method to be used in pursuit of further discoveries. Like every other science of observation, sociology is in course of development, but it, like any other branch of science, has already amassed and classified a number of ascertained interesting results.

By the help of these results it is possible to make the necessary selection and grouping of social facts, just as by the help of results drawn from physical and natural science it has been possible to make the necessary selection and grouping of physical facts relating to geography. Suppose for instance that I have to give an elementary lesson on the central plateau of Asia, let us see how, by the aid of social science, I shall succeed in filling up the stretch. I omit, naturally, any description of the district of what relates to the earth, and begin at once with matters concerning the inhabitants. And, first, I must speak of their occupation, a direct outcome of the physical conditions, which admit only the spontaneous growth of grasses and prohibit cultivation, making pasturage the only occupation possible. And this even would be impossible but for wandering habits and free intercourse under a system of ownership, by which the land is common property. I should shew, by means of a few examples, how clothes, rugs and blankets and other useful objects are obtained by simple home manufacture from the primitive material furnished by flocks. I should describe the working establishments, whose patriarchal structure and traditional operations are necessitated by circumstances. I should point out the inevitably absolute authority of the patriarch, the gathering together of young married couples under the paternal roof, and the consequent maintenance of habits of respect and docility. I should also give some details concerning diet, of which milk is the chief constituent; the movable tent so different from our houses of stone or brick; the manner of dress, of amusement, and of education; on the absence of any government superior to that of the family; on the part which these pastoral populations play in history, fitted to migrate in masses to any spot where a grassy way invites them, indifferent to cold or heat, thanks to their nomadic habits and the extremes of temperature of the great steppe; in a word, I should give a lesson in which social facts would occupy a conspicuous place, because on this soil, unaltered by human activity, social facts are closely bound up with local conditions.

I should proceed quite differently in case I had to give a lesson on England for instance, that is to say on a country the soil of which has been profoundly modified by the labour of man. Here nature plays a less significant part, man's place is of greater importance.

The action of nature determines the sphere of operation in which man exists, but man extends his power over nature further and further, and increases this sphere of operation artificially; not only does he change the surface of the soil by cultivation, but he descends into the bowels of the earth to seek coal, a new element offered to his activity; he exploits natural productions by means of rapid methods of communication which change the aspect of the country and annihilate distances. He arranges his life in a thousand diverse ways to suit his occupation of farmer, manufacturer, sailor, merchant, etc. From a complex social state arises a great variety of situations, and human effort tends to break down obstacles offered by nature, so that the social phenomena are both more difficult to describe and less closely dependent on local conditions.

Hence the number of social facts which enter into the geographical sketch will be restricted. We have only to indicate what man has found in nature to form the basis of his victorious efforts, and what are the modifications imposed by him on nature for the attainment of his end. I should describe, for instance, how the presence of coal has favoured the development of industries, how the insular position has led on to maritime commerce; I should point out also the importance of the results obtained as benefiting industries, trade, navigation, and other means of transport, because these results influence geography by bringing together countries isolated topographically from one another, but the details of this process have little to do with physical conditions, and are attached to them by causes too lax, too complex, or too indirect to be mentioned in an elementary lesson.

I should, therefore, not attempt to describe the social organisation of England—as I have described the social constitution of the Shepherds of the Great Steppe. I should confine myself to a brief reference to this complication, the fruits of years of human effort, which robs it of any precise connection with geography. By which I do not mean that a complex state of society may owe nothing to geography. Even on those manifestations of human activity which depend least upon nature, she leaves her trace; only instead of being the governing and preponderating influence she only figures as occasional and secondary.

For instance, financial and commercial combinations, literary and artistic inspirations, seem the results of personal aptitudes capable of being transported anywhere; it is recognised all the same that the great highways of trade take geographical facts into consideration, that centres of exchange are favourable to the development and indispensable to the exercise of the faculties which give rise to these combinations. It is equally certain that nomadic races are more inclined to reflection and to mental occupation than an agricultural population; that music is more easily developed in a society where families live together than where they live apart, etc. According to the degree of force of the influences mentioned, commerce, literature, the fine arts, may find a place in a work on geography.

But the geographer ought to modify the arrangement of his subject according to the social state of the country, that is whether its inhabitants are limited to the use of the spiritaneous productions of the soil, or whether their condition is complicated by the transformation of the soil and its products. In the first case he should set forth the influence of physical conditions, because it is direct and uniform, and consequently complete in itself. In the second, on the contrary, he should point out to his readers or students, by collateral suggestions, the influence of local circumstances wherever manifested, and include all facts which bear evidence of such manifestation.

Thus perfect harmony would exist between the realization of the fact and the manner of its presentation. The treatment of a country where society is in a simple condition is sufficiently understood by the illustration of the Great Steppe given above; that social facts are justly included in a complete and detailed study of geography will be willingly admitted, it may not be quite as readily seen how they can form part of an elementary lesson without over-burdening the memory or fatiguing the attention of young pupils. I am convinced, however, that such facts are a help to the memory, and a support to the attention of a child of ten of average intelligence. I have had personal experience of this, in a restricted sphere it is true, but the experiment was satisfactory. I teach geography myself to my children, and I have invariably found that they remember with greater accuracy all geographical facts in which I have been able to interest them from a social point of view. I am not speaking now only of those which act uniformly and exclusively on simple societies, such as the aridity of deserts, the growth of grasses in steppes, the humid heat of equatorial forests, or the icy temperature of Siberian tundas; I include also facts of detail, whose influence upon phenomena of complex social life is obvious.

For instance, the geographical situation of certain towns or certain countries explains perfectly the commercial development of which they are the centre; the feature of this situation which seems to have contributed in the highest degree to their prosperity, and which is easiest to grasp should be brought most emphatically under the notice of the pupils: thus if you explain to them that Bremen and Hamburg are placed at the mouths of the Elbe and the Weser in front of the peninsular of Jutland, which obstructs the entrance to the Baltic, that in consequence these two ports form naturally a landing place for merchandise coming from England, France, Spain, the Mediterranean, India, China, the New World, and penetrating into Germany, if you make an effort to shew them the natural advantages of this position, if you make yourself thoroughly well understood, by going over your explanation in many different ways until the idea has been fully grasped by the child, be assured that he will find it difficult to forget the exact

position of Bremen and Hamburg, their commercial importance, the points where the Elbe and the Weser flow into the sea, their bend towards the east, the form and situation of Jutland, and all other purely geographical facts which your explanation will have grouped together and whose interdependence will have been clearly pointed out. In this way the information afforded by the map becomes real and interesting to the pupils. After this fashion you can demonstrate to them that Portugal, the most commercial part of the Iberian peninsular, begins towards the East precisely at the points where the Spanish rivers become navigable, that Montreal, the commercial town of Canada has been built below the rapids of Laehive at the spot where the St. Lawrence offers to vessels going up the stream an obstacle difficult to surmount; that Venice, at the acme of its splendour when communication by land was difficult and ocean navigation in its infancy, formed a point of convenient junction between the East and the West, thanks to the deep indentation of the Adriatic.

You are not prohibited either from touching upon politics. You can easily explain to children of fifteen that the neutrality of Switzerland depends to a great extent upon her physical conformation and her position, just as her democratic organization is founded primarily on the social equality produced by the poverty of her soil.

And when you come to new countries, why not bring into strong relief the advantages or the hindrances to colonization offered by special physical features? It is quite easy to point out that the continental climate and character of Australia is opposed to the peopling of its interior, whilst the narrow islands of New Zealand offer on every side that humidity of climate favourable to cultivation; and reference might be made to the gold mines of California and the part they have played as colonizing agents, bringing fame to these regions and attracting thither workers who afterwards became agricultural colonists. What curious reflections might be made on the immense valley of the Mississippi, formerly only used as a hunting-ground by Indians, now one of the granaries of the modern world. Those vast treeless, sometimes stoneless, stretches would have been hard to utilize if rapid steamboats had not appeared to connect the forests of the north with the industrial centres of the east.

There is no end, in fact, to the examples that might be cited, I have only wished to shew that the method is easy of application; but this is not its only advantage, the substitution of a rational method for one that is purely mnemonic has, besides, the invaluable merit of shewing the pupil the true significance of what he is being taught, and of developing his faculties whilst supplying his memory with useful knowledge. Hence geography itself will not benefit solely by a method which supplements and organizes it; children who study it will find in it at the same time an excellent opportunity of developing their intelligence and their reasoning faculties.

It is interesting to shew conclusively how the study of geography may become, in this way, easier and more attractive as it becomes more scientific.

LESSONS FROM DARWIN.

IV. THE OCTOPUS.

THE Octopus is a most curious looking creature. It has a bag-like body and eight long arms, each of which is six times the length of the body. These arms are very strong and powerful and are made more so by suckers, which are arranged in pairs on the under side. Each arm has 120 pairs of suckers, so that a fair sized Octopus will have nearly 2,000 of them. With the help of the suckers an Octopus can lay tight hold of a fish or crab or other prey. They drag their bodies, by means of the long arms and suckers, into very narrow crevices in the rocks under the sea, and when they are so fixed, Darwin tells us, it requires great force to remove them.

In this way they are very difficult to catch, and at other times in order to escape they dart tail first, with the quickness of an arrow, from one side of a pool to another, at the same time discolouring the water with dark chestnut-brown ink, which comes from a gland inside its body, and is squirted out behind.

The Octopus has still another way of protecting itself, by changing its colour in a very extraordinary manner, something in the same way as a chameleon does on land. They seem to change their tints according to the nature of the ground over which they pass. When they are in deep water their usual colour is a brownish purple, but when they are in shallow water they become yellowish green. And this does not happen only now and then, but a change is constantly taking place, so that seeming clouds or blushes are always passing over the body. The reason of this is rather difficult to understand, but Darwin thought it was caused, by first the stretching and then the drawing together of tiny cells filled with different coloured fluids.

One special Octopus which Darwin saw in South America, showed this power of changing its colour both whilst it was at rest at the bottom of the water, and whilst it was swimming. His own description of what he noticed is so interesting that I think I must give it to you word for word. Darwin writes in the *Journal*:—"I was much amused by the various arts to escape detection used by one individual,